

**Department of  
English Studies**

# **GRAMMAR 3**

**Academic Year  
2010 - 2011**

IBN TOFAIL UNIVERSITY  
FACULTY OF LETTERS  
ENGLISH SECTION  
KENITRA

MODULE 11  
GRAMMAR 3  
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### GRAMMAR 3: COURSE DESCRIPTION

#### Course Objectives:

This course seeks to develop the students' ability to analyse the different elements which constitute the sentence in English. More precisely, it is intended to help the students recognize the different Phrasal/Sentential constituents and describe them in terms of their grammatical category and function.

#### Course Content:

Week 1: Introduction  
Week 2: Parts of Speech  
Week 3: Sentence Structure  
Week 4: Types of Clauses  
Week 5: Types of Phrases  
Week 6: Types of Phrases (cont'd)  
Week 7: Determiners  
Week 8: Subjects & Objects & Complements  
Week 9: Objects: Direct, Indirect & Benefactive  
Week 10: Mid-term test  
Week 11: Adverbs: Adjuncts, Disjuncts & Conjuncts  
Week 12: Adjectives: premodifying and postmodifying  
Week 13: Verb Phrase: Auxiliary and Main verb  
Week 14: General Exercises  
Week 15: Review for final test  
Week 16: Final Test

Teaching Methodology: in-class exercises and homework

Evaluation: Mid-term test 30%

Final test 50%

Teacher's Evaluation: 20% (Attendance, participation, discipline...)

# Glossary of Grammatical Terms

## *adjective*

a word that serves as a modifier of a noun to denote a quality of the thing named, to indicate its quantity or extent, or to specify a thing as distinct from something else. It answers the questions "which?", "how many?", and "what kind of?", though probably not all three at once.

## *adverb*

a word serving as a modifier of a verb, an adjective, another adverb, a preposition, a phrase, a clause, or a sentence, and expressing some relation of manner or quality, place, time, degree, number, cause, opposition, affirmation, or denial. It answers the questions "where?", "when?", or "how?", even if you didn't ask.

## *apposition*

a grammatical construction in which two typically adjacent nouns referring to the same person or thing stand in the same syntactical relation to the rest of a sentence. For example, in "the rally of the opposition Labor Party", "Labor Party" is in apposition with "opposition".

## *article*

one of a small set of words or affixes (as a, an, and the), used with nouns to limit or give definiteness to the application. English has an indefinite article (a, an) and a definite article (the). Welsh has only a definite article. I'm sure whole articles have been written about articles.

## *e*

an inflectional form of a noun, pronoun, or adjective indicating its grammatical relation to other words. Neither English nor Welsh has cases for nouns or adjectives. English has cases for pronouns: I/me/my, he/him/his, she/her/her, you/you/your and they/them/their are the subjective, objective, and possessive cases, respectively.

## *clause*

a group of words containing a subject and predicate and functioning as a member of a complex or compound sentence. It is not related to Santa.

## *collective*

denoting a number of persons or things considered as one group or whole. For example, "flock" is a collective noun. Now that you understand this concept, we can all breathe a collective sigh of relief.

## *comparative*

the degree of comparison in a language that denotes increase in the quality, quantity, or relation expressed by an adjective or adverb. Some of my definitions may be "silly", but comparative is "sillier".

## *complement*

an added word or expression by which a predicate is made complete. For example, "president" and "beautiful" are complements in "they elected him president" and "he thought her beautiful". The latter also happens to be a compliment.

## *compound subject*

a subject joined together with a conjunction. "Or" or "and" can join together the nouns or clauses. The preceding sentence has a compound subject. Or I suppose a "compound subject" could be one of the king's men living in a walled-in enclosure.

## *conjunction*

a word that joins together sentences, clauses, phrases, or words. There are two kinds of conjunctions: coordinating conjunctions (such as "and" and "or") and subordinating conjunctions (such as "but"). There is a conjunction between "Jupiter" and "Mars" (namely, "and").

## *direct object*

a noun or noun phrase representing the primary goal or the result of the action of its verb. For example, "direct objects" is the direct object of the sentence "I explained direct objects to you".

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***pronoun***

a word that is used as a substitute for a noun or noun equivalent, takes noun constructions, and refers to persons or things named or understood in the context. For example, "he" is a pronoun. The process of turning a noun into a pronoun is *not* called "pronunciation".

***proper noun***

a name belonging to an individual or place. For example, "Amy" and "Cardiff" are proper nouns. Regrettably, so is "Prince Andrew".

***relative clause***

a dependent clause in apposition with a substantive for the purpose of specifying it. For example, "who works for my father" is the relative clause in the sentence "The man who works for my father goofed." The fact that my father is my relative has nothing to do with it.

***sentence***

a grammatically self-contained speech unit consisting of a word or a syntactically related group of words that expresses an assertion, a question, a command, a wish, or an exclamation. Each sentence must a complete thought.

***singular***

the form of a pronoun or noun used to reference an object that occurs singly, alone, one-at-a-time, or without any others of its kind around it. For example, "hermit" only occurs in the singular.

***subject***

the part of a sentence that indicates what acts upon the verb. It is always a noun, pronoun, or noun clause. For example, "explaining grammar" is the subject of the sentence "Explaining grammar is one of my favourite activities". In both English and Welsh, it must agree in person and number with the main verb of the sentence. Other than that, it can be as disagreeable as it wants.

***superlative***

the degree of grammatical comparison that denotes an extreme or unsurpassed level or extent. Some of my definitions may be "silly", but superlative is "silliest".

***tense***

a distinction of form in a verb to express distinctions of time. Just because a verb has tenses does not mean it is up tight.

***transitive verb***

a verb that can act upon an object. One might say that a transitive verb is one that is object-oriented.

***verb***

a word that expresses an act, occurrence, or mode of being. It is the grammatical center of a predicate. For example, "verb" is a verb in the sentence "It is possible to verb any noun".

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## PARTS OF SPEECH

"Parts of speech" are the basic types of words that English has. Most grammar books say that there are nine parts of speech: *nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, pronouns, conjunctions, prepositions, interjections* and *articles*.

It is important to be able to recognize and identify the different types of words in English, so that you can understand grammar explanations and use the right word form in the right place. Here is a brief explanation of what the parts of speech are:

### Noun

A noun is a naming word. It names a person, place, thing, idea, living creature, quality, or action. Examples:  
*cowboy, theatre, box, thought, tree, kindness, arrival*

### Verb

A verb is a word which describes an action (doing something) or a state (being something). Examples:  
*walk, talk, think, believe, live, like, want*

### Adjective

An adjective is a word that describes a noun. It tells you something about the noun. Examples:  
*big, yellow, thin, amazing, beautiful, quick, important*

### Adverb

An adverb is a word which usually describes a verb. It tells you how something is done. It may also tell you when or where something happened. Examples:  
*slowly, intelligently, well, yesterday, tomorrow, here, everywhere*

### Pronoun

A pronoun is used instead of a noun, to avoid repeating the noun. Examples:  
*I, you, he, she, it, we, they*

### Conjunction

A conjunction joins two words, phrases or sentences together. Examples:  
*but, so, and, because, or*

### Preposition

A preposition usually comes before a noun, pronoun or noun phrase. It joins the noun to some other part of the sentence. Examples:  
*on, in, by, with, under, through, at*

### Interjection

An interjection is an unusual kind of word, because it often stands alone. Interjections are words which express emotion or surprise, and they are usually followed by exclamation marks. Examples:  
*Ouch!, Hello!, Hurray!, Oh no!, Ha!*

### Article

An article is used to introduce a noun. Examples: *the, a, an*

## Exercises: Parts of Speech

Identify the part of speech of the **highlighted** word in each of the following sentences:

1. The clown chased a dog around the **ring** and then fell flat on her face.

1. Verb
2. Noun
3. Pronoun
4. Adjective
5. Adverb
6. Preposition
7. Conjunction
8. Interjection

2. The geese **indolently** waddled across the intersection.

1. Verb
2. Noun
3. Pronoun
4. Adjective
5. Adverb
6. Preposition
7. Conjunction
8. Interjection

3. **Yikes!** I'm late for class.

1. Verb
2. Noun
3. Pronoun
4. Adjective
5. Adverb
6. Preposition
7. Conjunction
8. Interjection

4. Bruno's **shabby** thesaurus tumbled out of the book bag when the bus suddenly pulled out into traffic.

1. Verb
2. Noun
3. Pronoun
4. Adjective
5. Adverb
6. Preposition
7. Conjunction
8. Interjection

5. Mr. Frederick angrily **stamped** out the fire that the local hooligans had started on his verandah.

1. Verb
2. Noun
3. Pronoun
4. Adjective
5. Adverb

6. Preposition
7. Conjunction
8. Interjection

6. Later that summer, she asked herself, "What was **I** thinking of?"

1. Verb
2. Noun
3. Pronoun
4. Adjective
5. Adverb
6. Preposition
7. Conjunction
8. Interjection

7. She thought that the twenty zucchini plants **would not be** enough so she planted another ten.

1. Verb
2. Noun
3. Pronoun
4. Adjective
5. Adverb
6. Preposition
7. Conjunction
8. Interjection

8. **Although** she gave hundreds of zucchini away, the enormous mound left over frightened her.

1. Verb
2. Noun
3. Pronoun
4. Adjective
5. Adverb
6. Preposition
7. Conjunction
8. Interjection

9. Everywhere she went, **she** talked about the prolific veggies.

1. Verb
2. Noun
3. Pronoun
4. Adjective
5. Adverb
6. Preposition
7. Conjunction
8. Interjection

10. The manager **confidently** made his presentation to the board of directors.

1. Verb
  2. Noun
  3. Pronoun
  4. Adjective
  5. Adverb
  6. Preposition
  7. Conjunction
  8. Interjection
-

11. Frankenstein is the name of the scientist, not the monster.

1. Verb
2. Noun
3. Pronoun
4. Adjective
5. Adverb
6. Preposition
7. Conjunction
8. Interjection

12. Her greatest fear is that the world will end before she finds a comfortable pair of panty-hose.

1. Verb
2. Noun
3. Pronoun
4. Adjective
5. Adverb
6. Preposition
7. Conjunction
8. Interjection

13. That suitcase is hers.

1. Verb
2. Noun
3. Pronoun
4. Adjective
5. Adverb
6. Preposition
7. Conjunction
8. Interjection

14. Everyone in the room cheered when the announcement was made.

1. Verb
2. Noun
3. Pronoun
4. Adjective
5. Adverb
6. Preposition
7. Conjunction
8. Interjection

15. The sun was shining as we set out for our first winter camping trip.

1. Verb
2. Noun
3. Pronoun
4. Adjective
5. Adverb
6. Preposition
7. Conjunction
8. Interjection

16. Small children often insist that they can do it by themselves.



1. Verb
2. Noun
3. Pronoun
4. Adjective
5. Adverb
6. Preposition
7. Conjunction
8. Interjection

17. **Dust** covered every surface in the locked bedroom.

1. Verb
2. Noun
3. Pronoun
4. Adjective
5. Adverb
6. Preposition
7. Conjunction
8. Interjection

18. The census taker knocked **loudly** on all the doors but nobody was home.

1. Verb
2. Noun
3. Pronoun
4. Adjective
5. Adverb
6. Preposition
7. Conjunction
8. Interjection

19. They wondered if there truly was honor **among** thieves.

1. Verb
2. Noun
3. Pronoun
4. Adjective
5. Adverb
6. Preposition
7. Conjunction
8. Interjection

20. Exciting new products **and** effective marketing strategies will guarantee the company's success.

1. Verb
  2. Noun
  3. Pronoun
  4. Adjective
  5. Adverb
  6. Preposition
  7. Conjunction
  8. Interjection
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## Sentence Structure

**1. Simple Sentences:** A simple sentence has one independent clause. That means it has **one subject** and **one verb**—although either or both can be compound. In addition, a simple sentence can have adjectives and adverbs. What a simple sentence can't have is another independent clause or any subordinate clauses. A simple sentence has one independent clause:

\* The child is eating an apple. (one subject + one verb)

\* Oprah and Dr. Phil are great talk shows. (compound subject + one verb)

\* My neighbour eats and speaks at the same time. It's disgusting! (one subject+ compound)

**2. Compound Sentences:** A compound sentence consists of two or more independent clauses. The independent clauses can be joined in one of two ways:

- With a coordinating conjunction: *for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so*
- With a semicolon (;)

As with a simple sentence, a compound sentence can't have any subordinate clauses. Here are some compound sentences:

He swims very well **but** he can't cook!

It's raining, so you'd better take your umbrella.

**3. Complex Sentences:** A complex sentence contains one independent clause and at least one dependent clause. The independent clause is called the "**main clause**." These sentences use subordinating conjunctions to link ideas. As you check out these examples, see if you can find the subordinating conjunctions.

- Richard didn't show up (*independent clause*) **until** (*subordinating conjunction*) all the guests arrived (*dependent clause*).
- My mother was cooking dinner (*independent clause*) **while** (*subordinating conjunction*) I was reading an interesting book. (*dependent clause*).
- **Even though** (*subordinating conjunction*) he is an honest man (*dependent clause*), nobody believed him (*independent clause*).

The subordinating conjunctions are *until, while, and even though or even if*

**4. Compound-Complex Sentences:** A compound-complex sentence has at least two independent clauses and at least one dependent clause. The dependent clause can be part of the independent clause. For instance:

\* I planned to travel by train (*independent clause*) until the mechanic repaired my car (*dependent clause*), but I changed my mind (*independent clause*).

## TYPES OF CLAUSES

In grammar, a clause is a word or group of words ordinarily consisting of a subject and a predicate. Clauses are often contrasted with phrases. Traditionally, a clause can have both a finite verb and its subject, whereas a phrase either contains a finite verb but not its subject (in which case it is a verb phrase) or does not contain a finite verb. Hence, in the sentence "I didn't know that the dog ran through the yard", "that the dog ran through the yard" is a clause, as is the sentence as a whole, while "the yard", "through the yard", "ran through the yard", and "the dog" are all phrases.

There are finite and non-finite clauses. A finite clause is a clause which contains a conjugated verb and a non-finite clause contains a non-conjugated verb like the infinitive or the gerund. subject of a verb or as the object of a verb or preposition, as in these English examples:

### 1. Dependent and independent clauses

An independent clause can stand alone as a complete simple sentence, whereas a dependent clause must be connected to or part of another clause. The dependent clause is then described as subordinate to a main clause.

Examples in English include the following:

- "I bought a book" (*independent*)
- "because I bought a book" (*dependent*)
- "after I bought the book" (*dependent*)
- "him to do his homework" (*dependent; non-finite*), as in "She wanted him to do his homework."
- "that I bought" (*dependent*), as in "That's the book that I bought."

### 2. Functions of dependent clauses

One major way to classify dependent clauses is by *function*; that is, by the roles they play in the clauses they are subordinate to. Since the same dependent clause might have different roles in different sentences, this classification must be applied on a per-sentence basis.

Under this classification scheme, there are three main types of dependent clauses: noun clauses, adjective clauses, and adverb clauses, so called for their syntactic and semantic resemblance to noun phrases, adjective phrases, and adverbials, respectively. The exact uses of each vary somewhat from language to language, but a noun clause typically acts as the

- "What you say is not as important as how you say it."
- "I imagine that they're having a good time." *Dependent clause*
- "I keep thinking about what happened yesterday." *object clause*

(Incidentally, note that the word *that* is actually optional in the second sentence, highlighting a complication in the entire dependent/independent contrast: "They're having a good time" is a complete sentence, and therefore an independent clause, but in "I imagine they're having a good time", it acts as a dependent clause.)

An adjective clause modifies a noun phrase. In English, adjective clauses typically come at the end of their noun phrases:

- "The woman I interviewed said otherwise." *noun phrase* *adjective clause*

- "We have to consider the possibility **that she might refuse our proposal.**"

An *adverb clause* typically modifies its entire main clause. In English, it usually precedes or follows its main clause:

- "When **she gets here**, all will be explained."
- "He was annoyed by the whole thing, **which was unfortunate, but unavoidable.**"

### **3. Structures of dependent clauses**

The other major way to classify dependent clauses is by their *structure*, though even this classification scheme does make some reference to the clause's function in a sentence. This scheme is more complex, as there are many different ways that a dependent clause can be structured. In English, common structures include:

- Many dependent clauses, such as "before he comes" or "because they agreed", consist of subordinating conjunction, plus an independent clause. These clauses act much like prepositional phrases, and are either adjective clauses or adverb clauses, with many being able to function in either capacity.
- Relative clauses, such as "which I couldn't see", generally consist of a relative pronoun, plus a clause in which the relative pronoun plays a part. Relative clauses usually function as adjective clauses, but occasionally they function as adverb clauses; in either case, they modify their relative pronoun's antecedent, and follow the phrase or clause that they modify.
- Declarative content clauses, such as "that they came", usually consist of the conjunction *that* plus an independent clause, or of an independent clause alone (with an implicit preceding *that*). For this reason, they are often called *that clauses*.
- Interrogative content clauses, such as "whether they came" and "where he went" (as in "I don't know **where he went**"), are much like declarative ones, except that they are introduced by interrogative words.
- Small clauses, such as "him leave" (as in "I saw **him leave**") and "him to leave" (as in "I wanted **him to leave**"), are minimal predicate structures, consisting only of an object and an additional structure (usually an infinitive), with the latter being predicated to the former by a controlling verb or preposition.

## Subordinate Clause Types

Subordinate clauses may be finite or nonfinite. Within this broad classification, we can make many further distinctions. We will begin by looking at subordinate clauses which are distinguished by their *formal* characteristics.

Many subordinate clauses are named after the form of the verb which they contain:

### **TO-INFINITIVE CLAUSE:**

You must book early [*to secure* a seat]

### **BARE INFINITIVE CLAUSE:**

They made [the professor *forget* his notes]

### **-ING PARTICIPLE CLAUSE:**

His hobby is [*collecting* old photographs]

### **-ED PARTICIPLE CLAUSE:**

[*Rejected* by his parents], the boy turned to a life of crime

For convenience, we sometimes name a clause after its first element:

### **IF-CLAUSE:**

I'll be there at nine [*if* I catch the early train]

### **THAT-CLAUSE:**

David thinks [*that* we should have a meeting]

The *that* element is sometimes deleted: David thinks [we should have a meeting]

## Relative Clauses

An important type of subordinate clause is the **RELATIVE CLAUSE**. Here are some examples:

The man [who lives beside us] is ill

The video [which you recommended] was terrific

Relative clauses are generally introduced by a relative pronoun, such as *who*, or *which*. However, the relative pronoun may be deleted:

The video [you recommended] was terrific

Another variant, the **REDUCED RELATIVE CLAUSE**, has no relative pronoun, and the verb is nonfinite:

The man [living beside us] is ill

(Compare: *The man [who lives beside us]...*)

**Nominal Relative Clauses : NOMINAL RELATIVE CLAUSES (or independent relatives)**  
function in some respects like noun phrases:

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[What I like best] is football  
(cf. *the sport I like best...*)

The prize will go to [whoever submits the best design]  
(cf. *the person who submits...*)

My son is teaching me [how to use email]  
(cf. *the way to use email*)

This is [where Shakespeare was born]  
(cf. *the place where...*)

**The similarity with NPs can be further seen in the fact that certain nominal relatives exhibit number contrast:**

Singular: [What we need] *is* a plan

Plural: [What we need] *are* new ideas

Notice the agreement here with *is* (singular) and *are* (plural).

## Small Clauses

Finally, we will mention briefly an unusual type of clause, the verbless or SMALL CLAUSE. While clauses usually contain a verb, which is finite or nonfinite, small clauses lack an overt verb:

**If any**, write your comments on this side of the paper. (If you have any comments, write...)

**Lunch over**], the guests departed quickly

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## Types of Phrases: Noun and Verb

**Noun Phrase (NP) :** A noun phrase has a noun as its Head. Determiners and adjective phrases usually constitute the pre-Head string:

[NP *the children*]

[NP *happy children*]

[NP *the happy children*]

In theory at least, the post-Head string in an NP can be indefinitely long:

[NP *the dog that chased the cat that killed the mouse that ate the cheese that was made from the milk that came from the cow that...*]

The Head of an NP does not have to be a common or a proper noun. Notice that pronouns are a subclass of nouns. This means that pronouns, too, can function as the Head of an NP:

[NP *I*] like coffee

The waitress gave [NP *me*] the wrong dessert

[NP *This*] is my car

If the Head is a pronoun, the NP will generally consist of the Head only. This is because pronouns do not take determiners or adjectives, so there will be no pre-Head string. However, with some pronouns, there may be a post-Head string: [NP *Those who arrive late*] cannot be admitted until the interval

Similarly, numerals, as a subclass of nouns, can be the Head of an NP: [NP *Two of my guests*] have arrived/ [NP *The first to arrive*] was John

**Verb Phrase (VP) :** In a VERB PHRASE (VP), the Head is always a verb. The pre-Head string, if any, will be a 'negative' word such as *not* [1] or *never* [2], or an adverb phrase [3]:

[1] [VP *not compose* an aria]

[2] [VP *never compose* an aria]

[3] Paul [VP *deliberately broke* the window]

Many verb Heads *must* be followed by a post-Head string:

My son [VP *made* a cake] -- (compare: \**My son made*)

We [VP *keep pigeons*] -- (compare: \**We keep*)

I [VP *recommend* the fish] -- (compare: \**I recommend*)

Verbs which require a post-Head string are called **TRANSITIVE verbs**. The post-Head string, in these examples, is called the **DIRECT OBJECT**. *By expressing a relation that is derived from subject to the object*

In contrast, some verbs are *never* followed by a direct object: Susan [VP *smiled*] /The professor [VP *yawned*]

These are known as **INTRANSITIVE VERBS**. However, most verbs in English can be both transitive and intransitive, so it is perhaps more accurate to refer to transitive and intransitive *uses* of a verb. The following examples show the two uses of the same verb:

**Intransitive:** David *smokes*

**Transitive:** David *smokes* cigars

## Types of phrases : Adjective, Adverb and Prepositional

### 1. Adjective Phrase

In an ADJECTIVE PHRASE (AP), the Head word is an adjective. Here are some examples:

Susan is [AP **clever**]

The doctor is [AP **very late**]

My sister is [AP **fond** of animals]

The pre-Head string in an AP is most commonly an adverb phrase such as *very* or *extremely*. Adjective Heads may be followed by a post-Head string:

[AP **happy** *to meet you*]

[AP **ready** *to go*]

[AP **afraid** *of the dark*]

A small number of adjective Heads *must* be followed by a post-Head string. The adjective Head *fond* is one of these. Compare:

My sister is [AP **fond** of animals]

\*My sister is [fond]

### 2. Adverb Phrase (AdvP)

In an ADVERB PHRASE, the Head word is an adverb. Most commonly, the pre-Head string is another adverb phrase:

He graduated [AdvP **very recently**]

She left [AdvP **quite suddenly**]

In AdvPs, there is usually no post-Head string, but here's a rare example:

[AdvP **Unfortunately for him**], his wife came home early

### 3. Prepositional Phrase (PP)

PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES usually consist of a Head -- a preposition -- and a post-Head string only. Here are some examples:

[PP **through** the window]

[PP **over** the bar]

[PP **across** the line]

[PP **after** midnight]

This makes PPs easy to recognise -- they nearly always begin with a preposition (the Head). A pre-Head string is rarely present, but here are some examples:

[PP **straight through** the window]

[PP **right over** the bridge]



## DETERMINERS

Nouns are often preceded by the words *the*, *a*, or *an*. These words are called DETERMINERS.

They indicate the kind of reference which the noun has. The determiner *the* is known as the **DEFINITE ARTICLE**. It is used before both singular and plural nouns: *the book, the books...*

The determiner *a* (or *an*, when the following noun begins with a vowel) is the **INDEFINITE ARTICLE**. It is used when the noun is singular: *a teacher, an umbrella...*

The articles *the* and *a/an* are the most common determiners, but there are many others: **any, that, those, this, some, whatever, whichever, whoever...**

Many determiners express quantity: **both, many, each, every, several, few, enough, no, neither, much, what, which, whose,**

Perhaps the most common way to express quantity is to use a numeral. We look at numerals as determiners below.

### Numerals and Determiners

**Numerals are determiners when they appear before a noun. In this position, cardinal numerals express quantity: one book, twenty chairs... In the same position, ordinal numerals express sequence: first question, third student...**

The subclass of ordinals includes a set of words which are not directly related to numbers (as *first* is related to one, *second* is related to two, etc). These are called general ordinals, and they include **last, latter, next, previous, and subsequent**. These words also function as determiners.

**When they do not come before a noun, as we've already seen, numerals are a subclass of nouns. And like nouns, they can take determiners:**

- \* the **two** of us
- \* the **first** of many

They can even have numerals as determiners before them: **five twos (numeral)** are ten

In this example, **twos** is a plural noun and it has the determiner **five** before it.

Exercise :

In each of the following sentences, indicate whether the underlined word is a numeral or a determiner:

1. The first man to arrive was my uncle.
2. Two lives are ten
3. The last to hand in the exam was Ahmed
4. Next time don't be late
5. She was next on the list

## THE ORDERING OF DETERMINERS

Determiners occur before nouns, and they indicate the kind of reference which the nouns have. Depending on their relative position before a noun, we distinguish three classes of determiners.

	Predeterminer	Central Determiner	Postdeterminer	Noun
I met	<i>all</i>	<i>my</i>	<i>many</i>	friends

A sentence like this is somewhat unusual, because it is rare for all three determiner slots to be filled in the same sentence. Generally, only one or two slots are filled.

\* **Predeterminers:** Predeterminers specify quantity in the noun which follows them, and they are of three major types:

1. **"Multiplying"** expressions, including expressions ending in *times*:  
twice, double, six times...

2. **Fractions:** half, one-fourth, one-third...

3. The words *all* and *both*:

Predeterminers do not normally co-occur: \*double half my salary.

### \* Central Determiners

The definite article *the* and the indefinite article *a/an* are the most common central determiners:  
all, half a ...

As many of our previous examples show, the word *my* can also occupy the central determiner slot. This is equally true of the other possessives: all my time, half your money... The demonstratives, too, are central determiners.

### \* Postdeterminers

Cardinal and ordinal numerals occupy the postdeterminer slot: the five students, the previous exam, our last party...

Other quantifying expressions are also postdeterminers: my *many* cousins, his *several* mistakes

...

Postdeterminers can co-occur: her last two wishes, many other people...

### Exercise:

Identify all the determiners in each of the following sentences.

1. She would like a cup of fresh milk. *cardinal*
2. Both friends call their families three times a week. *both*
3. Your article will be published in all the countries of the world. *all*
4. Half the students came on time to class today. *half*
5. My first child cried every night when he was a baby. *my*
6. In some countries, men get double the amount women get. *some*
7. The children really need some nice toys. *the*

## Pronouns and Determiners

There is considerable overlap between the determiner class and the subclass of pronouns. Many words can be both:

Pronoun	Determiner
<i>This</i> is a very interesting book	<i>This</i> <u>book</u> is very interesting
<i>That</i> is a boring film	<i>That</i> <u>film</u> is boring

As this table shows, determiners always come before a noun, but pronouns are more independent than this. They function in much the same way as nouns, and they can be replaced by nouns in the sentences above:

*This* is a very good book    *Da Vinci Code* is a very good book

*That* is a boring film        *Lion King* is a boring film

On the other hand, when these words are determiners, they cannot be replaced by nouns:

*This* book is very good    \* *Da Vinci Code* book is very good

*That* film is boring        \* *Lion King* film is boring

The personal pronouns (*I, you, he, ...*) cannot be determiners. This is also true of the possessive pronouns (*mine, yours, his/hers, ours, and theirs...*)

### Exercise

In each of the following sentences, indicate whether the underlined word is a determiner or a pronoun:

1. Those people are waiting for you.
2. These are really good.
3. That is exactly what I wanted to talk to you about.
4. Can I have some tea?
5. Some like it easy.
6. Is that Khalid over there?

*Pnsh*

## Subjects and Objects

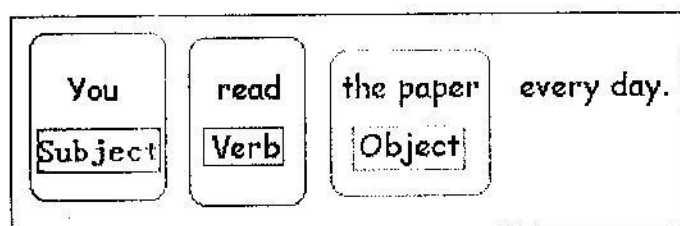
The subject of the sentence tells who does the action in a sentence. The object receives the action of the verb. Let's look at the difference between the COMPLETE SUBJECT the SIMPLE SUBJECT and the OBJECTS. This idea is important because in order to make sure that you have correct subject-verb agreement in the sentence, you have to make sure that the SIMPLE subject agrees with the verb. But sometimes, the simple subject is inside of a very long COMPLETE subject with lots of adjectives and prepositional phrases around it and it is hard to find. Here are the definitions:

A **Complete Subject** is a noun or a group of words such as "My brother, John, who studies with his best friend at the University of Miami" or "The man over there on the corner in the yellow hat". The complete subject includes all of the words that describe the simple subject of the sentence.

A **Simple Subject** is one or more nouns (car, John Brown) or pronouns (he, it). It is the subject of the verb. To help you write sentences that have correct subject-verb agreement, it is necessary to identify the simple subject of a sentence.

The other important element of most sentences is the **OBJECT**. The Object often comes after a verb. The object of a verb is a noun.

Example:



To find the direct object of a verb, you can use this process: 1) find the subject, 2) find the verb, 3) ask "subject + verb + WHAT?" The answer to that question will give you the object. Here is an example:

\* My brother studies English with his friends.

subject = brother      verb = studies      question = brother studies WHAT?  
answer = English (the object)

### Exercises:

\* **Instructions:** Identify the subject (s), verb (v), and object (o) of the verb in these sentences.

1. The students over there are studying English. *Subject: The students over there, Verb: are studying, Object: English*
2. Both of us raised our hands in class.
3. All of the people in this room came to the play. *Subject: All of the people in this room, Verb: came, Object: the play*
4. The boy in the hall ate lunch later.
5. Most cats climb trees.
6. Almost all of my friends watch MTV.

**\* Instructions: Answer these questions in complete sentences. When you finish, circle all of the subjects. Underline the verbs.**

1. What is your favorite sport? Why do you like this sport? Where do you play it?
2. Who is the most famous person in your country? Why is he famous? Do you admire him? Why or why not?
3. What is the title of your favorite book? What is the book about?
4. Who is the strangest person you know? Why do you consider this person strange?
5. Who is your best friend? Where does s/he live?

**When you are locating subjects, BE CAREFUL with prepositional phrases. The noun that comes after the preposition in a prepositional phrase is NEVER the subject of the sentence.**

**\* Identify the subject in these sentences.**

1. After many years of study, both of my daughters became professionals.
2. After we finish washing the dishes, you can watch the movie with your friends in the living room.
3. The third chapter in the book really helps me understand English verbs.
4. Trust is an important ingredient for a good relationship.
5. Who is going to teach the class when the teacher goes to the conference? *Ident. relative pronoun function & subject of clause*
6. That is not what the professor said during the review session yesterday.
7. The house on the corner with all of the flowers in front and the strange doorknobs is for sale.
8. One of the team captains called you this morning.
9. When I think about when I first came to the United States, my thoughts remind me of many things that I can never forget. *Just as complicated.*
10. By that time, I didn't know when I was going to see my family again.
11. Once outside the airport, I was impressed with all that I saw.
12. Special rooms and clothes are used to protect patients from hurting themselves.

## Complements

A **complement** is called a complement because it completes the predicate in a sentence. There are two kinds of complements: object complements and subject complements.

### **\* Object Complements**

An object complement follows the direct object and modifies or refers to the direct object. An object complement can be an adjective, a noun, a word, or a group of words which act as an adjective or noun:

If you elect me **president**, I'll keep the unions **satisfied**.  
("President" is an object complement referring to the direct object "me." "Satisfied" is an object complement modifying the direct object "unions.")

The students elected Mary **president**.  
("President" is an object complement referring to the direct object "Mary.")

Wool socks will keep your feet **very warm**.  
("Very warm" is an object complement modifying the direct object "your feet.")

### **\* Subject Complements**

A subject complement follows a linking verb and modifies or refers to the subject. A subject complement can be an adjective, a noun, a pronoun, a word, or a group of words which acts as an adjective or noun:

I am a **teacher**, but I am not yet **experienced**.  
("Teacher" and "experienced" are both subject complements that modify the subject "I.")

Subject complements have two subgroups: predicate adjectives and predicate nouns.

#### **\*\* Predicate Adjectives**

A predicate adjective is a subject complement that is an adjective.

I am not yet **experienced**.  
("Experienced" is a predicate adjective that modifies the subject "I.")

#### **\*\* Predicate Noun**

A predicate noun (nominative) is a subject complement that is a noun:

I am a **teacher**.  
("Teacher" is a predicate noun that refers to the subject "I.")

\* The main difference between an object and a complement is that the object can become the subject in a passive sentence but the complement cannot.

- \* I read a good book.
- \* A good book was read by me. (this sentence is correct)

\* I feel happy

\* Happy is felt by me (this sentence is wrong)

**Verbs that take a subject complement or attribute:**

Appear	grow	turn	stay	seem	become	
be	break	remain	look	smell	work	Prove
sound	come	fly	make	taste	fall	die
run	feel	get	keep	go		

**Verbs that take an object complement or attribute:**

Consider	call	elect	declare	find	put	like
make	paint	think	appoint	prove	name	

**Homework**

Put the each of the above verbs in sentences.

## Objects

There are three types of objects : **direct, indirect and benefactive.**

- I want **an apple**. (what do I want? **An apple = direct object**)
- She gave **me an apple** (what did she give? **An apple = direct object/ to whom did she give an apple? Me= indirect object**)
- She called **me a taxi**. (what did she call? A taxi = direct object/ **For whom did she call the taxi? For me= benefactive object**)

The main difference between an indirect object and a benefactive object is that we use **TO** for the former and **FOR** for the latter:

- She gave an apple **TO** me
- She called a taxi **FOR** me

Another difference is that a benefactive object cannot have two passive sentences like the indirect object:

- I was given an apple
- An apple was given **TO** me
- I was called a taxi (this sentence is wrong)
- A taxi was called **FOR** me

A direct object can be a **noun phrase** or a **clause**:

- I regret **that I lied to you** (finite clause)
- I asked **whether they were coming or not** (finite clause)
- I want **an apple** (Noun phrase)
- I want **it** (pronoun)
- He helped **wash the dishes** (non-finite clause)
- I let **Ahmed go** (non-finite clause with a subject)



## ADVERBS

Adverbs are words that modify

- a verb (He drove slowly. — How did he drive?)
- an adjective (He drove a very fast car. — How fast was his car?)
- another adverb (She moved quite slowly down the aisle. — How slowly did she move?)

Adverbs often tell when, where, why, or under what conditions something happens or happened. Adverbs frequently end in *-ly*; however, many words and phrases not ending in *-ly* serve an adverbial function and an *-ly* ending is not a guarantee that a word is an adverb. The words *lovely*, *lonely*, *motherly*, *friendly*, *neighborly*, for instance, are adjectives. If a group of words containing a subject and verb acts as an adverb (modifying the verb of a sentence), it is called an Adverb Clause:

- When this class is over, we're going to the movies.

When a group of words not containing a subject and verb acts as an adverb, it is called an **adverb phrase**. Prepositional phrases frequently have adverbial functions (telling place and time, modifying the verb):

- He went to the movies.
- She works on holidays.
- They lived in Canada during the war.

And Infinitive phrases can act as adverbs (usually telling why):

- She hurried to the mainland to see her brother.
- The senator ran to catch the bus.

But there are other kinds of adverbial phrases:

He calls his mother as often as possible.

Adverbs can modify adjectives, but an adjective cannot modify an adverb. Like adjectives, adverbs can have comparative and superlative forms to show degree.

- Walk faster if you want to keep up with me.
- The student who reads fastest will finish first.
- With sneakers on, she could move more quickly among the patients.
- The flowers were the most beautifully arranged creations I've ever seen.
- She worked less confidently after her accident.
- That was the least skillfully done performance I've seen in years.

The as — as construction can be used to create adverbs that express sameness or equality: "He can't run as fast as his sister."

A handful of adverbs have two forms, one that ends in *-ly* and one that doesn't. In certain cases, the two forms have different meanings:

- He arrived late.
-

- Lately, he couldn't seem to be on time for anything

Adverbs often function as **intensifiers**, conveying a greater or lesser emphasis to something. Intensifiers are said to have three different functions: they can emphasize, amplify, or downtone. Here are some examples:

- **Emphasizers:**
  - I really don't believe him.
  - He literally wrecked his mother's car.
  - She simply ignored me.
  - They're going to be late, for sure.
- **Amplifiers:**
  - The teacher completely rejected her proposal.
  - I absolutely refuse to attend any more faculty meetings.
  - They heartily endorsed the new restaurant.
  - I so wanted to go with them.
  - We know this city well.
- **Downtoners:**
  - I kind of like this college.
  - Joe sort of felt betrayed by his sister.
  - His mother mildly disapproved his actions.
  - We can improve on this to some extent.
  - The boss almost quit after that.
  - The school was all but ruined by the storm.

Adverbs (as well as adjectives) in their various degrees can be accompanied by premodifiers:

- She runs very fast.
- We're going to run out of material all the faster

### **Types of Adverbs:**

#### **Adverbs of Manner**

She moved slowly and spoke quietly.

#### **Adverbs of Place**

She has lived on the island all her life.

She still lives there now.

#### **Adverbs of Frequency**

She takes the boat to the mainland every day.

She often goes by herself.

#### **Adverbs of Time**

She tries to get back before dark.

It's starting to get dark now.

She finished her tea first.

She left early.

## Adverbs of Purpose or reason

She drives her boat slowly to avoid hitting the rocks.

She shops in several stores to get the best buys.

## Positions of Adverbs

One of the hallmarks of adverbs is their ability to move around in a sentence. Adverbs of manner are particularly flexible in this regard.

- Solemnly the minister addressed her congregation.
- The minister solemnly addressed her congregation.
- The minister addressed her congregation solemnly.

The following adverbs of frequency appear in various points in these sentences:

- Before the main verb: I never get up before nine o'clock.
- Between the auxiliary verb and the main verb: I have rarely written to my brother without a good reason.
- Before the verb *used to*: I always used to see him at his summer home.

Indefinite adverbs of time can appear either before the verb or between the auxiliary and the main verb:

- He finally showed up for batting practice.
- She has recently retired.

## Order of Adverbs

There is a basic order in which adverbs will appear when there is more than one. MANNER, PLACE, FREQUENCY, TIME, REASON (MPFTR)

- She goes *on foot* **to school** *everyday* **on Mondays** *to study English*.

M            P            F            T            R

## Adjuncts, Disjuncts, and Conjuncts

Regardless of its position, an adverb is often neatly integrated into the flow of a sentence. When this is true, as it almost always is, the adverb is called an adjunct. When the adverb does not fit into the flow of the clause, it is called a disjunct or a conjunct and is often set off by a comma or set of commas. A disjunct frequently acts as a kind of evaluation of the rest of the sentence. Although it usually modifies the verb, we could say that it modifies the entire clause, too. Notice how "too" is a **disjunct** in the sentence immediately before this one; that same word can also serve as an adjunct adverbial modifier: It's too hot to play outside. Here are two more disjunctive adverbs:

- Frankly, Martha, I don't give a hoot.
- Fortunately, no one was hurt.

**Conjuncts**, on the other hand, serve a connector function within the flow of the text, signaling a transition between ideas.

- If they start smoking those awful cigars, then I'm not staying.
- We've told the landlord about this ceiling again and again, and yet he's done nothing to fix it.

At the extreme edge of this category, we have the purely conjunctive device known as the conjunctive adverb (often called the adverbial conjunction):

- Jose has spent years preparing for this event; nevertheless, he's the most nervous person here.
- I love this school; however, I don't think I can afford the tuition.

# ADJECTIVES

Adjectives are words that describe or modify another person or thing in the sentence.

- the tall professor
- the lugubrious lieutenant
- a solid commitment
- a month's pay
- a six-year-old child
- the unhappiest, richest man

If a group of words containing a subject and verb acts as an adjective, it is called an Adjective Clause. My sister, who is much older than I am, is an engineer

## Position of Adjectives

Unlike Adverbs, which often seem capable of popping up almost anywhere in a sentence, adjectives nearly always appear immediately before the noun or noun phrase that they modify. Sometimes they appear in a string of adjectives, and when they do, they appear in a set order according to category. When indefinite pronouns — such as something, someone, anybody — are modified by an adjective, the adjective comes after the pronoun:

Anyone capable of doing something horrible to someone nice should be punished.

And there are certain adjectives that, in combination with certain words, are always "postmodifiers" (coming after the thing they modify):

The president elect, heir apparent to the Glitzy fortune, lives in New York.

## Degrees of Adjectives

Adjectives can express degrees of modification:

- Katia is a *rich* woman, but Richard is *richer* than Katia, and John is the *richest* in town.

Certain adjectives have irregular forms in the comparative and superlative degrees:

good	better	best
bad	worse	worst
little	less	least

much many some	more	most
far	further	furthest

Some adjectives are ABSOLUTE and hence are not used with intensifying adverbs like *very*, *a little...*, and cannot take the comparative or superlative forms. The absolute adjectives are:

absolute	impossible	principal
adequate	inevitable	stationary
chief	irrevocable	sufficient
complete	main	unanimous
devoid	manifest	unavoidable
entire	minor	unbroken
fatal	paramount	unique
final	perpetual	universal
ideal	preferable	whole

Be careful, also, not to use *more* along with a comparative adjective formed with *-er* nor to use *most* along with a superlative adjective formed with *-est* (e.g., do not write that something is more heavier or most heaviest).

## The Order of Adjectives

The categories in the following table can be described as follows:

- I. **Determiners** — articles and other limiters.
- II. **Observation or opinion** — postdeterminers and limiter adjectives (e.g., a real hero, a perfect idiot) and adjectives subject to **subjective** measure (e.g., beautiful, interesting)
- III. **Size and Shape** — adjectives subject to objective measure (e.g., wealthy, large, round)
- IV. **Age** — adjectives denoting age (e.g., young, old, new, ancient)
- V. **Color** — adjectives denoting color (e.g., red, black, pale)
- VI. **Origin** — adjectives denoting source of noun (e.g., French, American, Canadian)
- VII. **Material** — adjectives denoting what something is made of (e.g., woolen, metallic, wooden)
- VIII. **Qualifier** — final limiter, often regarded as part of the noun (e.g., rocking chair, hunting cabin, passenger car, book cover)

**Example:**

I bought **a** (determiner) **beautiful** (observation) **large** (size) **round** (shape) **antique** (age) **red** (color) **Italian** (origin) **crystal** (material) **vase** (Noun)

The *-ed* ending modifiers are often accompanied by prepositions

- We were amazed **at** all the circus animals.
- We were amused **by** the clowns.
- We were annoyed **by** the elephants.
- We were bored **by** the ringmaster.
- We were confused **by** the noise.
- We were disappointed **by** the motorcycle daredevils.
- We were disappointed **by** their performance.
- We were embarrassed **by** my brother.
- We were excited **by** the lion-tamer.
- We were excited **about** the high-wire act, too.
- We were frightened **by** the lions.
- We were introduced **to** the ringmaster.
- We were interested **in** the tent.
- We were irritated **by** the heat.
- We were opposed **to** leaving early.
- We were satisfied **with** the circus.
- We were shocked **at** the level of noise under the big tent.
- We were surprised **by** the fans' response.
- We were surprised **at** their indifference.
- We were tired **of** all the lights after a while.
- We were worried **about** the traffic leaving the parking lot.

## EXERCISES

1. Underline the **noun phrases** and circle the **determiners** in the following paragraph:

Many workers have jobs but they are not happy with them. If you want to find the right job, sit down and think about yourself. What makes you happy? There are six types of personalities. Nobody is just one type, but most people are mainly one type. For each type, there are certain jobs that might be right and others that are probably wrong. The realistic type is practical and likes working with machines and tools. The investigator type is curious and likes to learn, analyze situations and solve problems. The artistic type is imaginative and likes to express himself by creating art. The social type is friendly and likes helping other people. The enterprising type is outgoing and likes to persuade or lead other people. The conventional type is careful and likes to follow routines and keep track of details.

2. Underline the **adjectives** and circle the **adverbs** in the following paragraph

Sarah Chang is described by other musicians as the most talented, perfect violinist they've ever heard. What makes this praise especially surprising is Sarah's age: she is only a teenager. On Sarah's fourth birthday, her father gave her a magnificent violin. Later, she was accepted at the famous Juilliard School of Music, in New York City. By 8, she was performing as a violin soloist with major orchestras. Sarah has also recorded many albums. Her success came fast!



### Quiz N° 1

**Underline the subjects and the objects (direct, indirect and benefactive) and give their identity. Under each underlined item, write the identity and function. Use abbreviations (S, DO, IDO, BO, NP, N, Pro...)**

A tale is a story about imaginary events such as a fairy tale or a folktale. A report gives us a detailed and objective presentation of facts, such as a newspaper report or a government report, while a statement is a short summary of facts. Speakers and writers like to use anecdotes, short stories about a real event, to illustrate and explain an idea. A chronicle is a long narrative of historical events told in time order. A yarn is a long entertaining story loosely based on the truth. Children enjoy fables, old stories about animals that teach a moral lesson. And too many people enjoy gossip --often untrue rumours about people.

1. Her presentation had some interesting anecdotes about women who have started their own businesses.
2. The government issued a brief statement about the president's trip to Africa.
3. I want to know the tale about the ant and the grasshopper.
4. It's getting really cold. I would be happy if you made me a woollen pull over.

## QUIZ N° 2

**Underline the subjects and the objects (direct, indirect and benefactive) and give their identity. Under each underlined item, write the identity and function. Use abbreviations (S, DO, IDO, BO, NP, N, Pro...)**

I read a really interesting article by a woman named Brenda Gaines; it's the cover story in Business 2000 magazine this week. She is a reporter for the magazine and to piece together a story explaining the poor customer service at a cell phone company, she secretly got a job as a representative and worked there for a month. Ms Gaines said that it almost ruined her life. For one thing, she had to start work at 6 A.M., and she has never been an early riser. All day, she was completely overloaded with work. She had only two minutes to deal with each phone call, even if the customer had a complicated problem. She said that it didn't give her enough time for interaction with the callers. The job involved constant multi-tasking because she had to answer calls, fill out forms and respond to emails.

1. I don't know whether the computer has been repaired or not.
2. The company is currently accepting applications for assistant manager.
3. The host called his guests a taxi to take them to the airport.
4. The parents told their children that they have to behave well in the presence of strangers.

### QUIZ N° 3

**Underline the subjects and the objects (direct, indirect and benefactive) and give their identity. Under each underlined item, write the identity and function. Use abbreviations (S, DO, IDO, BO, NP, N, Pro...)**

One of the biggest mistakes I've ever made was buying a car. I always wanted a car and I thought that having one would make my life easier. I still remember the day I bought the car and drove it home. It was the happiest day of my life and then everything went wrong. First of all, I got a ticket for speeding. I was so excited about driving my new car that I didn't realize how fast I was going. Later, when I got home, there was nowhere to park on the street. I looked for parking for almost thirty minutes. Finally, I found a place. The next morning, I decided to drive to school. The traffic was terrible and I was 15 minutes late for class. All this happened in the first 24 hours of owning a car! By the end of the first year, I was almost \$2000 in debt.

1. People in Morocco speak Arabic, French, Tamazight and English
2. The airlines have cancelled all the flights due to bad weather.
3. The grandmother told her grandchildren nice stories at night.
4. The police arrested twenty people at yesterday's demonstration.

### QUIZ N° 4

**Underline the subjects and the objects (direct, indirect and benefactive) and give their identity. Under each underlined item, write the identity and function. Use abbreviations (S, DO, IDO, BO, NP, N, Pro...)**

Tibet is one of the coldest inhabited places on Earth, with winter temperatures plunging as low as -40 degrees Celsius. Until very recently, scientists believed that the first inhabitants of Tibet arrived only around 4000 years ago, after the end of the most recent Ice Age. They theorized that previously the Tibetan plateau had been covered by ice a mile thick. Then, in 1986, a researcher from Hong Kong University named David Zhang made a remarkable discovery. High on a mountain slope, about 85 Km from the city of Lhasa, he found 19 human handprints and footprints, embedded in ancient rock at the edge of a hot spring. But the real surprise didn't come until 1999. That's when he and his colleagues tried a technique called optical dating, which revealed that the prints were actually more than 20 000 years old.

1. We didn't budget enough money and had to get by on only 20 Dhs a day.
2. The workers need an employee identity card to get into the building.
3. Most readers can't understand this intricate book.
4. The manager gave his employees extra money to encourage them to work harder.

## EXERCISES :

Identify and give the function of the underlined words/phrases:

1- (1)The bushes twitched again. Lock steadied (2)by the tree and gazed. (3)A head and a chest faced him, (4)half-hidden. There were white bone things behind the leaves and (5) hair. The man had white bone things above his eyes and under the mouth so that (6)his face was (7)longer than (8)a face would be. The man turned (9)sideways (10)in the bushes and looked at Lock along (11)his shoulder. A stick rose upright and (12) there was (13)a lump of bone in the middle. Lock peered at (14)the stick and the lump of bone and the small eyes in the bone thing (15) over the face. (16)Suddenly Lock understood (17)that the man was holding the sick out to him but neither he nor Lock could reach across the river. He (18)would have laughed if it were not for the echo (19)of the screaming in (20) his head.

2. We had (1) an interesting discussion (2) last night about (3) travel and safety. Miss Fulton, who (is) a (4) quiet timid soul, said (5) that she was too much (6) afraid of airplanes to trust (7) herself in one. Tom asked (8) whether she did not travel a great deal each year. He said that (9) it seemed to him that she went thousands of miles (10) each winter and summer. She acknowledged that he was right, but insisted that (11) her car and the trains were (12) much safer. She said that (13) when she falls she wants to see (14) where and when she is going to die. Dad laughed at (15) that and told her that (16) there were (17) plenty of people in (18) car and train accidents who did not choose (19) the places (20) they were going to hit.

3. (1)The basic rule in (2)constructing a sentence or a paragraph is that there should be (3)unity of thought and clearness of expression. If in the course of a sentence or paragraph,

we wander (4)from one idea to another, we shall achieve (5)only confusion. (6)Two  
(7)disconnected ideas require (8)two separate sentences or paragraphs. We must learn (9)to  
think before (10) we write, and not merely as we write. (11)There can be (12) no fixed rule  
for the length of a sentence or a paragraph. It is (13) obvious that the longer our sentences are,  
the more danger there is of their becoming (14)difficult to understand. (15)On the other hand,  
if we (16)always aimed at only a succession of very short sentences or paragraphs, we  
(17)would attain only (18)monotony. We should, (19) therefore, aim at a suitable length  
avoiding excesses (20) in either direction.

4. (1) For the first eight years of my school career, I went to a little country school. (2)There  
was in it the usual (3)overgrown bully who made (4)life miserable for anyone (5)younger or  
weaker than himself. It remained for (6)all the little girls to find a way to cure(7)him. One  
evening on (8)our way home, as we reached the bank (9)of a little stream, he began threatening  
(10)to duck the smallest boy. The little girls screamed at him (11)to stop, but the bully only  
laughed. All at once, they were (12)upon him in a huddled mass; and down he went, with ten  
(13)screaming frantic girls pulling and snatching (14)wildly at him. (15)Around his arms,  
went a rope that had been concealed in some feminine (16)little (17)lunch basket. To the  
accompaniment of (18) tearful shrieks and blows of (19)tiny fists, they also bound (20)his  
feet.

5. (1)The opposition of nature and convention was (2)a commonplace of Greek  
philosophical speculation. In the discussion of language, the distinction (3)of nature and  
convention was made to turn primarily upon the question whether (4)there was (5)any  
(6)necessary connection between the meaning of a word and its form. (7)Extreme  
adherents (8)of the naturalist school, like Cratylus, maintained (9)that all words were

indeed naturally appropriate to the things they signified. Various ways were recognized in (10)which the form (11)of a word might be (12)naturally appropriate to its meaning. First of all, (13)there were the relatively small sets of words (14)which to some degree or other were imitative of the sounds (15)they referred to. The crucial term (16)employed for this category was (17)onomatopoeia. (18)This was simply the (19)Greek word (20)for “the creation of names”.